

327.52
327.2

JAPANESE IMMIGRATION *and the* JAPANESE IN CALIFORNIA

14

"We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." — The Declaration of Independence.

California Farmers Co-operative Association

510 BATTERY STREET, SAN FRANCISCO

Price: 5 cents per copy, \$1.50 per 50 copies, \$2.00 per 100 copies
in postal stamps, check, or currency.

"OBSERVE GOOD FAITH AND JUSTICE TOWARD ALL NATIONS; CULTIVATE PEACE AND HARMONY WITH ALL; RELIGION AND MORALITY ENJOIN THIS CONDUCT; AND CAN IT BE THAT GOOD POLICY DOES NOT EQUALLY ENJOIN IT? IT WILL BE WORTHY OF A FREE, ENLIGHTENED, AND AT NO DISTANT PERIOD, A GREAT NATION, TO GIVE TO MANKIND THE MAGNANIMOUS AND TOO NOVEL EXAMPLE OF A PEOPLE ALWAYS GUIDED BY AN EXALTED JUSTICE AND BENEVOLENCE. WHO CAN DOUBT THAT IN THE COURSE OF TIME AND THINGS, THE FRUITS OF SUCH A PLAN WOULD RICHLY REPAY ANY TEMPORARY ADVANTAGES WHICH MIGHT BE LOST BY A STEADY ADHERENCE TO IT? CAN IT BE THAT PROVIDENCE HAS NOT CONNECTED THE PERMANENT FELICITY OF A NATION WITH ITS VIRTUE? THE EXPERIMENT, AT LEAST, IS RECOMMENDED BY EVERY SENTIMENT WHICH ENNOBLES HUMAN NATURE. ALAS! IS IT RENDERED IMPOSSIBLE BY ITS VICES?"—WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS.

JAPANESE IMMIGRATION *and the* JAPANESE IN CALIFORNIA

JAPANESE IMMIGRATION into this country was first recorded in the reports of the immigration authorities in 1866, when there were seven Japanese entering America. From that time to 1885 figures for Japanese arrivals did not materially increase.

In 1884, however, Congress adopted the Chinese exclusion law, which created a condition stimulating the introduction of Japanese labor. The large landowners of California, having been deprived of Chinese farm hands, found in the Japanese an excellent worker for their farms and orchards. Naturally they endeavored to encourage Japanese immigration by offering alluring terms.

The inducements offered to the Japanese began to be perceptible a few years after the enactment of the Chinese exclusion law. Thus, in 1891 Japanese arrivals numbered 1,136.

About this time a new factor was injected into the economic situation on the Pacific Coast, opening a wider field of employment for Japanese labor. The western railroads had found out that the Japanese made excellent section hands, and tried hard to secure as many Japanese as possible. These conditions conspired to stimulate Japanese immigration, and by 1899 Japanese arrivals increased to 2,844.

In the latter part of the nineties Hawaii was annexed by the United States and in 1900 Japanese immigration into the islands was for the first time included in the reports of the Department of Commerce and Labor. In that year Japanese arrivals numbered 12,635, most of which came to Hawaii.

The following table shows Japanese arrivals to continental United States and Hawaii from 1902 to the adoption of the "gentlemen's agreement" in 1907, comparing them with figures for European immigrants in the same period:

Year	European Immigrants	Japanese Immigrants to Continental U. S.	Japanese Immigrants to Hawaii
1902	619,068	5,145	9,125
1903	814,507	6,923	13,045
1904	767,933	7,674	6,590
1905	974,273	3,639	6,692
1906	1,018,365	4,784	9,051
1907	1,199,566	9,361	20,865

As this table shows Japanese immigration to continental United States was not large, majority of Japanese having come to Hawaii.

But many of the Japanese who had come to Hawaii eventually migrated to continental United States. The protest of the Pacific Coast, which led to the conclusion of the "gentlemen's agreement," was really directed against the migration of Japanese from the Hawaiian Islands to the continental United States.

THE GENTLEMEN'S AGREEMENT.

The "gentlemen's agreement" of 1907, excluding Japanese laborers from America, is not in the shape of a formal treaty or agreement. The term applies simply to the substance of a number of informal notes exchanged between the State Department and the Japanese Ambassador at that time. Briefly stated, the agreement is this:

First: Japan, of her own accord, will refrain from issuing passports to Japanese laborers desiring to enter territories contiguous to continental United States, such as Mexico or Canada.

Second: Japan will recognize the right of the United States to refuse the admission to continental United States of Japanese of the laboring class whose passports do not include continental United States.

Third: Japan will issue passports to continental United States only for Japanese of the following three classes: (1) Non-laborers, such as travellers, business men, financiers, etc. (2) Japanese, whether laborer or non-laborer, who have already become domiciled in continental United States. (3) Parents, wives or children of Japanese who have become domiciled in continental United States. (4) Japanese who have acquired farming interests in continental United States and who wish to return there to take active control of those interests.

On the basis of this understanding President Roosevelt issued, on March 14, 1907, an order excluding from continental United States "Japanese or Korean laborers, skilled or unskilled, who have received passports to go to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii, and come therefrom." To put this executive order into operation, the Department of Commerce and Labor, on March 26, 1907, issued a circular which reads as follows:

"Aliens from Japan or Korea are subject to the general immigration laws.

"Every Japanese or Korean laborer, skilled or unskilled, applying for admission at a seaport or at a land border port of the United States, and having in his possession a passport issued by the government of Japan, entitling him to proceed only to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii, shall be refused admission.

"If a Japanese or Korean alien applies for admission and presents a passport entitling him to enter the United States, or one which is limited to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii, he shall be admitted, if it appears that he does not belong to any of the classes of aliens excluded by the general immigration laws.

"If a Japanese or Korean alien applies for admission and presents a passport limited to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii, and claims that he is not a laborer, either skilled or unskilled, reasonable proof of this claim shall be required in order to permit him to enter the United States.

"If a Japanese or Korean skilled or unskilled laborer is found in the continental territory of the United States without having been duly admitted upon inspection, the procedure employed under the general immigration laws for the arrest and hearing of aliens who have entered the United States surreptitiously shall be observed."

HOW THE GENTLEMEN'S AGREEMENT WORKED.

The American Government, in negotiating the exclusion of Japanese laborers, was chiefly concerned with the conditions on the Pacific Coast and had no intention of applying the gentlemen's agreement to Hawaii, where sugar plantations needed Japanese labor. But the Japanese Government, of its own initiative and volition, decided to extend to Hawaii the application of the same agreement, thus issuing passports to Hawaii only to those Japanese of the laboring class who were former residents in the islands, and parents, wives or children of such residents.

We have explained the scope and nature of the exclusion understanding, and are in a position to describe its practical working. The regulations concerning the exclusion of Japanese laborers came into effect in March, 1907; yet Japanese immigrants for the fiscal year 1907 totalled 30,226 (that is, 9,361 to continental United States, 20,865 to Hawaii), the figures being the largest in the history of Japanese immigration to America. From this the uninformed may infer that the exclusion regulations failed, in the first year at any rate, to attain the end for which they were adopted. The inference is wrong. Although the exclusion regulations were issued in March, 1907, it required a considerable time to complete the preparations necessary for their enforcement and to obtain Japanese coöperation without which they could not accomplish satisfactory results. Consequently the new arrangement did not begin to work smoothly in all its details until July or August of that year. It will, therefore, be seen that Jap-

anese immigration for the fiscal year 1907, extending from July, 1906, to June, 1907, was affected but little by the new system. On the contrary the high state of prosperity, which prevailed in this country during that year, brought an unusually large number of immigrants from Japan, as also from European countries. European immigrants for that year totalled 1,199,566, breaking all records in the immigration history of America. The same circumstances which swelled the tide of European immigration produced similar effects upon Japanese immigration.

By the middle of the summer of 1907, however, the effects of the new system began to be perceptible. Japan, on her part, had been striving to put the official machinery for the control of her emigrants to America in efficient working order. Thus in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1908, Japanese immigrants totalled 15,803 (9,544 to continental United States, 6,259 to Hawaii), showing a decrease of 14,423 as compared with the total for the preceding year. By the summer of 1908 the official machineries of both Japan and America for the control of immigration had attained a greater degree of efficiency, in consequence of which Japanese immigrants for the year ended June 30, 1909, declined to 3,430 (2,432 to continental United States, 1,998 to Hawaii), as against which no less than 7,382 left this country for their home land, resulting in a decrease of 3,952 in the Japanese population in Hawaii and the "mainland."

RECENT INCREASE OF JAPANESE ARRIVALS.

We have seen that, as the result of the "gentlemen's agreement," Japanese arrivals to continental United States decreased from 9,544 in 1908 to 2,432 in 1909. In 1910 the figures were practically the same as those for the year preceding. Since 1911 the number has been gradually increasing, as the following table will show:

Year	Arrivals	Departures
1908	9,544	4,796
1909	2,432	5,004
1910	2,598	5,024
1911	4,285	5,869
1912	5,358	5,437
1913	6,771	5,647
1914	8,462	6,300
1915	9,029	5,967
1916	9,100	6,922
1917	9,150	6,581
1918	11,143	7,191

The gradual increase since 1911 is due to the following facts:

First: As we have already indicated, the "gentlemen's agreement" admits (1) former residents of the United States, (2) parents, wives and children of residents and (3) settled agriculturists. This is, of course, in addition to non-laboring classes, such as diplomats, merchants, financiers, travellers, students, etc., who are free to come. In conformity to this agreement, Japanese residents, who had gone to Japan in large numbers in 1909 and 1910, began to return to these shores in about 1911. In the meantime, many of the Japanese residents here began to send for their parents, wives and children.

Second: Especially since 1914, the war has obliged Japanese officials, business men, etc., to pass through the United States in going to Europe, because the other routes to Europe have been either closed or dangerous. The figures for such Japanese must be twice the actual number, because they are counted once at Pacific ports upon their arrival there of these Japanese from Japan, and counted again upon their reëntrance to this country at the Atlantic ports from Europe.

Third: Due to the war, Japanese students, who would have gone to Europe under normal condition, have been obliged to come to the United States.

Fourth: The enormous increase of American-Japanese trade due to the war caused many Japanese firms to send agents to America and to establish new offices in San Francisco, Seattle, New York, and other leading American cities. In the fiscal year 1914, that is the year before the war, Japan imported from America \$54,000,000 worth of goods. In 1918 this increased to \$275,000,000. In other words, Japanese purchases from America increased more than five-fold in five years. In the same period Japanese exports to America increased three times. With such phenomenal progress of trade, it was inevitable that the coming of Japanese connected with American trade, as well as their families, should become increasingly more frequent. (It may be said in parenthesis that while Japan's sixty million people purchased in 1918 \$275,000,000 worth of American goods, China's four hundred millions purchased \$43,000,000 worth of merchandise from America. In other words, Japanese purchases of American goods are \$4.59 per capita, while Chinese purchases amount to 10 cents per capita.)

ANALYSIS OF JAPANESE IMMIGRATION.

In the preceding table we have shown figures for Japanese arrivals to and departures from continental United States. If we classify Japanese arrivals into laborers and non-laborers, we have the following table:

Year	Laborers	Non-Laborers
1909	675	1,757
1910	589	1,909
1911	726	3,536
1912	894	4,464
1913	1,371	5,400
1914	1,762	6,700
1915	2,214	6,815
1916	2,958	6,142
1917	2,838	6,321
1918	2,604	8,539

The "gentlemen's agreement" prohibits the admission of "new" laborers from Japan, but admits Japanese of the following three classes, whether laborers or non-laborers: (1) Former residents, who return to America within 18 months following their departure from America. (2) Parents, wives and children of Japanese residing in America. (3) Japanese who have settled in America as agriculturists.

The Japanese Government, of course, makes it a rule not to issue passports to laborers other than those coming under the above classification. But it is sometimes difficult to distinguish a laborer from a non-laborer. The Japanese Government may issue a passport to a Japanese whom it believes, upon inquiry, to be a non-laborer, but in the judgment of the American immigration authorities this same Japanese may be regarded as a laborer. Such cases are quite conceivable.

In examining the above table it must be borne in mind that many laborers return to Japan from year to year. Unfortunately figures for departing laborers are not obtainable, as the reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration do not classify departures into laborers and non-laborers.

Much has of late been said about the "picture brides." It is a great mistake to think that all Japanese women who come to America are picture brides. Not a few of them are wives of Japanese who are connected with business firms which have established offices in various parts of the United States in the past several years. Many are women who were married to their husbands before the latter left Japan for this country, and who have come to join them in America.

Figures for Japanese women (including girls) who have arrived in continental United States from 1909 to 1918 are as follows:

Year	Males	Females	Total
1909	1,777	867	2,644
1910	1,648	1,039	2,687
1911	2,377	1,905	4,282
1912	2,930	2,428	5,358
1913	4,012	2,759	6,771
1914	5,034	3,428	8,462
1915	5,542	3,487	9,029
1916	5,869	3,231	9,100
1917	5,833	3,326	9,159
1918	7,100	4,043	11,143

As we have already explained, many of these women are not picture brides. It must also be remembered that the above statistics include both women and children.

PICTURE BRIDES.

As to "picture brides" we have no data at this writing to ascertain the entire number of their arrivals to continental United States, including all ports. The only available figures are those obtained at the immigration office at San Francisco. These figures are as follows:

PICTURE BRIDES ARRIVING THE PORT OF SAN FRANCISCO.

Year	Number
1912	879
1913	625
1914	768
1915	823
1916	486
1917	504
1918	520
1919	465
Total	5,070
	5,273

Perhaps the term "picture bride" is a misnomer, and calls for explanation. Briefly, "picture marriage" is this:

When a man living in America desires to marry, but is prevented by various reasons from going home, he writes to his parents, asking them to find a suitable woman for his bride. The parents, following the usual customs and rules, fix on an eligible person. Then they intimate to the girl's parents that they are desirous of securing her marriage to their son in America. The parents on either side spare no pains in inquiring into the character, social standing, family relations, genealogy, health, and education of the young man and woman. If this

investigation proves satisfactory, both to the parents and to the prospective groom and bride, the man in America sends his photograph to the woman, and receives her photograph in exchange. This "interview" through photographs proving satisfactory to both parties, the nuptial knot is tied at a ceremonial dinner in which the groom, living in America, is naturally absent, but which is attended by the bride and the parents and relatives of both sides. This done, the parents register the marriage with the proper authorities. This marriage has been regarded as valid both by the Japanese and the American Government. In many cases exchange of photographs is not required, because it frequently happens that the prospective groom and bride were born in the same town or village and have known each other since childhood.

If we look at it in the above light, there is nothing objectionable in the practice of "picture marriage," which we repeat, is a gross misnomer. It is, therefore, but natural that the American Government, should regard this marriage practice, as it has regarded, as legal and valid.

But in view of severe criticisms directed against this practice the Japanese Government announced on December 17, 1919 that it would stop issuing passports after February 25, 1920. Commenting on this announcement, Mr. T. Ohta, the Japanese Consul General in San Francisco issued this statement:

"This means that about the 25th of January next, the Japanese consulates in America will cease to receive applications for certificates necessary to secure passports for such women, because it takes about a month for the applications to reach the proper authorities in Japan. Therefore, if any Japanese in continental United States wishes to send for his wife to whom he has been married by the procedure commonly and somewhat erroneously called 'picture marriage,' his application for endorsement must be in the hands of Japanese consulate at the end of January at the latest. That means that there is only an interval of a month or so in which the Japanese consulates can accept such applications.

"This interval, brief as it is, is provided with a view to avoiding inevitable embarrassment which a sudden prohibition of 'picture marriage,' would cause to those Japanese men and women who have been making preparations for marriages. It would be unjust to stop the practice all of a sudden and without warning.

"This announcement on the part of the Japanese Government is another proof that it is earnestly solicitous of maintaining and promoting friendly relations with the United States and especially the

people of California. For the sake of amicable relations between our two countries and peoples, Japan is always willing and ready to meet America half way.

"For my own part I have all along maintained that any and all problems pending or arising between Japan and America can be, and ought to be, settled by friendly exchange of views. The settlement of the 'picture bride' question is ample proof that between our two governments there is perfect understanding and friendly feeling."

Previous to this announcement by the Japanese Government, that is, on October 28, 1919, the Board of Directors of the Japanese Association of America at San Francisco issued the following statement, forecasting the step likely to be taken by the Japanese and American governments on the matter of "picture brides." The statement reads in part as follows:

"It is the sense of the Board of Directors of the Japanese Association that the so-called 'picture marriage,' which has been practiced among certain classes of Japanese residing in this country, should be abolished because it is not only in contravention of the accepted American conception of marriage but is also out of harmony with the growing ideals of the Japanese themselves. With this belief in mind, the Board of Directors will make the utmost efforts to carry out this resolution.

"The Board of Directors does not entertain the slightest doubt that this recommendation will be cheerfully and readily accepted by the members of the Association as well as by the Japanese residents, who are not its members. Through the persistent and painstaking campaign for Americanization which has been extensively carried on by the Japanese Association in the past several months, the Japanese in this State have come to realize that the practice of marriage through exchange of photographs is incompatible with the ideals and customs of the American people.

"We understand that the Government of Japan has also been considering the advisability of prohibiting this practice. Without awaiting a formal announcement on this matter on the part of the Japanese Government, we have come to the conclusion that we should request it to adopt adequate measures to stop this practice.

"The above decision on the part of the Board of Directors implies no intimation that 'picture marriage' is illegal and that the coming of 'picture brides' to America has been in violation of the 'gentlemen's agreement.' It must be emphasized that 'picture marriage' is a misnomer and that it is not so simple a process as the term apparently indicates.

"We consider it most important and necessary that the Japanese in America should marry and settle down in domestic life, because the home is not only essential to the wholesome existence of individuals, but is also the foundation of a stable national and social structure. The Japanese are going to stay in this country. If they are going to stay here, we consider it best for them to marry and make homes. Since they have shown a greater desire for home life, drinking, gambling, and other evil practices among them have become much less, and the moral condition of the Japanese community has greatly improved.

"There is no question as to the desirability of the Japanese settling down in home life. At the same time, we urge that in marrying and making their homes, the Japanese in America should do nothing which is contrary to the ideas and customs of the country in which they live."

JAPANESE IN CALIFORNIA.

Having surveyed the general situation of Japanese immigration, we are now in position to take up the specific question of the Japanese in California.

Here the first thing that claims our attention is the extent of the Japanese population in this state. Unfortunately there is no source from which we can secure up-to-date and accurate information on this matter. When the census is completed in 1920, we shall know how many Japanese are in California and other states. In the meantime the only approximate estimate of the Japanese population in California is that made by the Japanese Consulate at San Francisco in September, 1918. This estimate shows the following figures:

Men	41,842
Women	12,232
Boys under 16 years.....	7,877
Girls under 16 years.....	7,031
Total	68,982

Of the total of 68,982 about 38,008 are engaged in farming. According to the investigation of the Japanese Agricultural Association at the end of 1918, this farming population may be classified as follows:

Farmers	7,973
Farmers' wives	4,560
Farmers' boys under 16 years.....	3,396
Farmers' girls under 16 years.....	3,114
Farm hands	15,794
Farm hands' wives.....	1,663
Farm hands' boys under 16 years.....	771
Farm hands' girls under 16 years.....	737
Total	38,008

JAPANESE FARMERS.

With regard to the Japanese farmers in California a few points must be emphasized. In the first place, it is not true that they employ exclusively their own countrymen as farm hands. In recent years many of them have been employing Caucasian laborers as well as Japanese. The surprising fact is that wages of Japanese farm laborers are higher than those paid their Caucasian fellows. As a rule, Japanese are paid \$4.50 to \$5.00 per day without board, while Caucasian laborers receive \$3.50 to \$4.00. This difference is mainly due to the fact that in certain kinds of farm work the Japanese are more efficient. Where work does not call for the skill and efficiency peculiar to the Japanese, the Japanese farmers prefer to employ Caucasian laborers whose wages are less. Where Caucasians and Japanese are employed on the same farm, their mutual relations are, without exception, friendly. Not only do they work together in a spirit of coöperation, but they eat the same food at the same table.

Another notable point is that Japanese farmers deal with American banks in their respective localities. This fact must be emphasized because the false notion has been deliberately spread by biased or uninformed people that the Japanese farmers are financed by the Japanese banks in San Francisco, whose head offices are in Japan. It is the testimony of American banks in farming districts that the Japanese farmers are honest and trustworthy in their business dealings.

It has been complained by unsympathetic critics that the wives of Japanese farmers, or at least many of them, work in the field with their husbands. We do not deny that some Japanese women help their husbands in lighter kinds of farm work, as women do in the older countries in Europe and Asia. It must be borne in mind that the Japanese farmers in California are yet in the stage of pioneering, and are passing through the hardships and perseverances that must inevitably be experienced by all pioneers. The sharing by Japanese women of their husbands' labor in the field, is nothing but an aspect of this

pioneering. It is not only in this particular matter that the Japanese farmers in California show signs of pioneering. Their dwellings are what no one can be proud of, and their modes of living are devoid of amenities of life. And yet no Japanese admits that this is to be their ultimate condition. So far from it, they are ambitious not only to acquire wealth but to elevate their social standing. When the hardships and trials inevitable in the initial stages of their undertaking are passed, there is no doubt that they will soon emerge from their present state of life.

THE ALIEN LAND LAW OF 1913.

In considering the Japanese question in California one naturally recalls the Alien Land Law enacted by California in 1913. It was then claimed that the Japanese had been buying farm lands in California so rapidly and so extensively that the state was compelled to adopt such a law. We do not wish to say whether this contention was well founded. We shall simply set forth authentic facts and let the reader arrive at his own conclusion.

According to Mr. George Robertson, statistician of the California Board of Agriculture, a Government organization, the Japanese in that State owned, in 1913, 331 farms, totalling 12,726 acres, and having an assessed value of \$478,990. In addition, the Japanese leased 282 farms, with a total acreage of 17,596.

Now, the farm lands of California, according to the Census of 1910, aggregate 27,931,444 acres, of which 11,389,894 acres have been improved. It appears, therefore, that at the time of the enactment of the Alien Land Law the Japanese owned only one acre to every 2,116 acres of California's farm lands. Or, if we consider only the improved lands, the proportion was one to 895 acres. Since California's land area measures 99,619,000 acres, its area of farm lands can be, and will be considerably extended, if efficient and experienced farmers are induced to come and settle there. It may be mentioned here that most of the lands improved by Japanese in California are the kind considered by American farmers to be worthless or too unprofitable for cultivation. Yet the industry and patience of the Japanese farmers have converted such lands into thriving farms.

ACREAGE CULTIVATED BY JAPANESE.

Since the enactment of the Alien Land Law, native born Japanese have acquired some land, but the acreage controlled or cultivated by the Japanese are far from so extensive as has been commonly imag-

ined. According to the investigation made by the Japanese Agricultural Association of California at the end of 1918, the approximate figures are as follows:

	No. of Farms	Acreage
Owned	527	29,105
Leased	5,936	336,721
Total	6,463	365,826

In addition to this, there are a number of American corporations in which Japanese farmers have minor interests. The area cultivated by such corporations is estimated at about 13,000 acres, mostly rice fields.

In most cases the Japanese take up lands avoided by other farmers as worthless or unprofitable. When the Japanese, by dint of their industry, intelligence, and efficiency, prove the worth of such lands the value and price of adjoining lands increases phenomenally. This has been the case at Livingston, Fresno, Florin, and in Butte County. As an American writer puts it:

"The most striking feature of Japanese farming in California has been this development of successful orchards, vineyards, or gardens on land that was either completely out of use or else employed for far less profitable purposes. Ignorant of the facts of the case, we have been inclined to believe in California that Japanese farmers have merely taken over lands and farms of American farmers and continued the business as they found it. The slightest study, however, shows this conclusion to be a complete error.

"The Japanese farmer in California has always been a great developer and improver. Where he has taken over lands that were in use before his time he has almost always, if not always, put them to a far higher use and made them more valuable than they were before. But with a great proportion of the lands he now farms he has developed them out of nothing, or next to nothing."

EXAMPLES OF JAPANESE PIONEERING.

Take, for instance, the case of Florin. In this district the soil is a shallow bedrock, abounding in sloughs. The land has to be irrigated by means of artesian water conducted through ditches. Because of the great amount of money and labor required in the boring of wells and the levelling of land for irrigation, there was but little inducement for the American farmer. Before the advent of Japanese, the country was poor, its output of fruits being extremely meagre. The vast fields had been sowed to grain, but the fertility of the soil was found so

limited that each succeeding year decreased the yield until the grain industry was no longer profitable. At last the land was permitted to lie idle; but when the Japanese came in, its owners saw a chance to turn it into a profit, offering it to them on yearly payments for a price they never would have gotten from any other investor. In a year's time the barren fields were changed into attractive berry gardens. With their usual foresight, the Japanese plant grape-vines along with strawberries, so that when the three-years' life of the strawberry ceases a productive vineyard takes its place. Their vines are robust and their berry plants luxuriant, and in comparison with them, those raised by other farmers looks sadly neglected. The Japanese spare no pains in their efforts to improve the quality of their produce, knowing that the best quality brings the highest price. And today Florin boasts of shipping \$150,000 worth of strawberries annually.

Another striking example of Japanese pioneering is seen in the development of Livingston in Fresno County. When the Japanese first appeared here some twelve years ago, they found the soil nothing but shifting sand, blown by desert winds that sucked up and whirled away every vestige of moisture, its bare surface scorched by a fierce sun. There were no shade trees, no sanitation, no schools, no churches. There was nothing to make life worth living; in fact, life there was believed impossible.

An American colony had been planted at Livingston twelve years before, but after a brief struggle with hostile conditions, had vanished. It simply "blew away," its distant neighbors said. These Japanese were laughed at when they announced that they would settle at Livingston. Their own people laughed at them. They were told that they, too, would be blown away by the fierce winds that whirled over the hot sands. But the Japanese were undaunted, and by dint of perseverance and assiduity have succeeded in converting the desert into smiling gardens and flourishing orchards. As a result of this transformation, the neighboring sand fields, which were once regarded as worthless, have suddenly enhanced its value and price.

In the phenomenal development of the rice industry in Butte, Colusa, Yuba, and Sutter counties, we find another happy example of Japanese pioneering. Here the soil is not only charged with alkali but is packed so hard that few Americans ever thought of raising anything on it. Yet in this apparently forbidding country the Japanese saw an opportunity for profitable rice culture. Although the Japanese was not the first to try rice culture in this district, it was he who made the industry a commercial success. While American pioneers wavered and abandoned the enterprise, the Japanese stuck to the job and

outlived the failures and disasters which had to be faced in the early stage of the venture. When the Japanese had demonstrated that the rice industry could be made profitable, American farmers followed their example, profiting themselves by the costly experiments and disastrous failures of their Japanese forerunners. Today there are at least 140,000 acres of land devoted to rice culture, of which the Japanese farmers, after years of pioneering, operate only some 16,000 acres.

Again, look at the delta region of the Sacramento Valley. This district is damp and often inundated, and was long regarded as unhealthy, and shunned by Caucasian farmers. It was the Japanese who opened this country for profitable farming. He worked on unsanitary lands on the lower reaches of the Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers, and has made them rich with potatoes, onions, beans, and fruits.

JAPANESE FARMERS NOT COMPETITORS OF AMERICANS.

It has been contended that Japanese farmers compete with Caucasian farmers. But a careful examination of the agricultural statistics of California reveals the fact that the Japanese have followed certain lines of farming which are usually avoided by Caucasian farmers. The following table supports this statement:

Product	Acreage by Japanese	Total Acreage by All	Per Cent of Japanese to Total Acreage
Berries	5,968	6,500	91.8
Celery	3,568	4,000	89.2
Asparagus	9,927	12,000	82.7
Seeds	15,847	20,000	79.2
Onions	9,251	12,112	76.3
Tomatoes	10,616	16,000	66.3
Cantaloupes	9,581	15,000	63.8
Sugar Beets	51,604	102,949	50.1
Green Vegetables...	17,852	75,000	23.8
Potatoes	18,830	90,175	20.8
Hops	1,260	8,000	15.7
Grapes	47,439	360,000	13.1
Beans	77,107	592,000	13
Rice	16,640	106,220	10
Cotton	18,000	179,860	10
Corn	7,845	85,000	9.2
Fruits and Nuts	29,210	715,000	4
Hay and Grain	15,753	2,200,000	0

As is evident from this table, the Japanese have taken up the kinds of farming shunned by other farmers, such as berry, celery, and asparagus culture requiring stooping posture on the part of workers. The Japanese, being comparatively short in stature, are particularly adapted to such farming.

On the other hand, the percentage of acreage cultivated by the Japanese is very small in such farming as grain, hay, corn, fruit, and nut culture, which require comparatively little manual labor. The above figures show that in such fields American or Caucasian farmers are predominant. The table is significant, showing that the Japanese do not compete with American farmers, but have filled the gap created by the unwillingness of the latter to engage themselves in certain kinds of farming.

JAPANESE BIRTH RATE.

Many tales have been told about the fabulous birth rates among the Japanese in California. Yet if we compare the percentage of Japanese births to total births in California with the percentage of Caucasian births, there is little occasion for alarm. For this purpose the following table is prepared from the official figures of the State Board of Health:

Year	Japanese Births	Percentage of Japanese Births to Total Births	White Births	Percentage of White Births to Total Births
1908	455	1.6	27,190	96.8
1909	682	2.2	29,736	96.3
1910	719	2.2	30,893	96.1
1911	995	2.9	33,245	96.5
1912	1,467	3.7	37,194	94.6
1913	2,215	5.3	40,864	93.2
1914	2,874	6.2	42,281	91.9
1915	3,342	6.9	43,874	91.3
1916	3,721	7.3	46,272	91.4
1917	4,108	7.8	47,314	90.6

As shown in the above table, Japanese births in the past ten years have increased phenomenally. But this condition is abnormal and the rate will soon decline. Japanese immigrants came to this country at first without wives. But in recent years the Japanese in America have come to realize the necessity of home life, and have, in compliance with the "gentlemen's agreement," invited their wives to come and join them here. Sudden increase of Japanese births in California was the natural result. In the last ten years or so a majority of Japanese males in California, who were in position to marry or who intended to marry, have married. Within a few years the rate

of increase of Japanese births from year to year will begin to decline. This decline will be accelerated by the stopping of "picture marriage," to which reference has been made in preceding paragraphs. With the "gentlemen's agreement" strictly restricting Japanese immigration, the stock of marriageable Japanese males in California will soon be exhausted. Moreover, Japanese, too, must die. According to the statistics of the State Board of Health, 5,860 Japanese died in California between 1908 and 1917.

The cry of "Japanese are taking our farms" sounds illogical in view of the actual condition in California. Long before the Japanese began to buy or lease land to any appreciable extent, the acreage of California farms had been decreasing. In the ten years between 1900 and 1910 there was a decrease in the amount of land in farms of 897,597 acres, and in the amount of improved land in farms of 568,943 acres. This decrease was due to the growing movement of the population from rural district to the city. The lure of city life has been a great factor in the abatement of farming in the past decade or two. The Japanese farmers in California have served to fill part of the gap that has been unfortunately created by the abandonment of farms by the younger generation of the American people.

SMUGGLING ACROSS THE MEXICAN BORDER.

Much has been said about the alleged smuggling of Japanese across the Mexican border. There is no reliable information on this matter. All that we have is exaggerated assertions and arbitrary estimates made by those who have certain ends to promote.

It is reasonable to assume that there are a few, or even a considerable number of, Japanese smuggling across the border, but it is absurd to say the number of such Japanese amounts to many thousands. The Japanese Government does not issue passports to Mexico. The Japanese population in Mexico is between two and three thousand.

As far as the Japanese Government is concerned, it has been doing everything in its power to prevent the clandestine entry of Japanese from Mexico to California. If there be any considerable smuggling from the South, the matter is beyond the power and control of the Japanese Government, and it is up to the American Government to look out for it. Japan would be satisfied if the American authorities would increase their vigilance on the border, and deport every Japanese whom they might find to be seeking surreptitious entrance.

As an illustration of the great pains that has been taken by the

Japanese Government in forestalling the coming of its subjects to Mexico, the following fact may be mentioned:

When, a few years ago, the Japanese Consul in Lima discovered that Japanese in Peru had been going to Mexico, he, under the instructions of the government at Tokyo, asked the Japanese steamship company not to sell tickets from Peru to any Mexican port. Of course the Japanese Government had no authority to compel the steamship company to accept such a request, which was obviously an encroachment upon the rights of the business concern. But the company (Toyo Kisen Kaisha), mindful of amicable relationship between Japan and the United States, cheerfully acceded to the request of the government, and has for some years past been denying itself the right of issuing tickets reading from "Peru to Mexico."

When Japanese in Peru found out that their exodus to Mexico had been checked by this agreement between the government and the steamship company, they began to buy tickets clear to Tokyo, announcing their intention to go back to Japan. Of course the steamship company could not refuse to issue tickets to those who wished to go home. Soon, however, it transpired that some of these Japanese professing to go home, would land at Salina Cruz, when the steamer stopped at that port. Not infrequently they would force their way at the point of the rifle, should the captain of the steamer attempt to intercept. There is no means of obtaining accurate information as to the extent to which this devious method of going to Mexico has been resorted to.

The Japanese Government is at a loss to know how to prevent this migration from Peru to Mexico. Obviously it can not put an injunction upon the issuance of steamship tickets to Japanese who profess to return home from a foreign country. That is why we say that the matter of smuggling across the Mexican border is beyond the control of the Japanese Government, and that it must be adjusted by the increased vigilance of the immigration authorities of the United States.

"ONLY A PEACE BETWEEN EQUALS CAN LAST. ONLY A PEACE THE VERY PRINCIPLE OF WHICH IS EQUALITY AND A COMMON PARTICIPATION IN A COMMON BENEFIT. THE RIGHT STATE OF MIND, THE RIGHT FEELING BETWEEN NATIONS, IS AS NECESSARY FOR A LASTING PEACE AS IS THE JUST SETTLEMENT OF VEXED QUESTIONS OF TERRITORY OR OF RACIAL AND NATIONAL ALLEGIANCE. THE EQUALITY OF NATIONS UPON WHICH PEACE MUST BE FOUNDED, IF IT IS TO LAST, MUST BE AN EQUALITY OF RIGHTS; THE GUARANTEES EXCHANGED MUST NEITHER RECOGNIZE NOR IMPLY A DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BIG NATIONS AND SMALL—BETWEEN THOSE THAT ARE POWERFUL AND THOSE THAT ARE WEAK. RIGHT MUST BE BASED UPON THE COMMON STRENGTH, NOT UPON THE INDIVIDUAL STRENGTH, OF THE NATIONS UPON WHOSE CONCERT PEACE WILL DEPEND. EQUALITY OF TERRITORY OR OF RESOURCES THERE, OF COURSE, CAN NOT BE; NOR ANY OTHER SORT OF EQUALITY NOT GAINED IN THE ORDINARY PEACEFUL AND LEGITIMATE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PEOPLES THEMSELVES. BUT NO ONE ASKS OR EXPECTS ANYTHING MORE THAN AN EQUALITY OF RIGHTS. MANKIND IS LOOKING NOW FOR FREEDOM OF LIFE, NOT FOR EQUIPOISES OF POWER."

—WOODROW WILSON.

"WE MUST TREAT WITH JUSTICE AND GOOD-WILL ALL IMMIGRANTS WHO COME HERE UNDER THE LAW. WHETHER THEY ARE CATHOLIC OR PROTESTANT, JEW OR GENTILE, WHETHER THEY COME FROM ENGLAND OR GERMANY, RUSSIA, JAPAN OR ITALY, MATTERS NOTHING. ALL WE HAVE A RIGHT TO QUESTION IS THE MAN'S CONDUCT. IF HE IS HONEST AND UPRIGHT IN HIS DEALINGS WITH HIS NEIGHBOR AND WITH THE STATE, THEN HE IS ENTITLED TO RESPECT AND GOOD TREATMENT. ESPECIALLY DO WE NEED TO REMEMBER OUR DUTY TO THE STRANGER WITHIN OUR GATES. IT IS THE SURE MARK OF A LOW CIVILIZATION, A LOW MORALITY, TO ABUSE OR DISCRIMINATE AGAINST OR IN ANY WAY HUMILIATE SUCH STRANGER WHO HAS COME HERE LAWFULLY AND WHO IS CONDUCTING HIMSELF PROPERLY. TO REMEMBER THIS IS INCUMBENT ON EVERY AMERICAN CITIZEN, AND IT IS, OF COURSE, PECULIARLY INCUMBENT ON EVERY GOVERNMENT OFFICIAL WHETHER OF THE NATION OR OF THE SEVERAL STATES."—THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

